

ISOTOPY STABILITY OF DYNAMICS ON SURFACES

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ABSTRACT. This paper investigates dynamics that persist under isotopy in classes of orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of orientable surfaces. The persistence of periodic points with respect to periodic and strong Nielsen equivalence is studied. The existence of a dynamically minimal representative with respect to these relations is proved and necessary and sufficient conditions for the isotopy stability of an equivalence class are given. It is also shown that most the dynamics of the minimal representative persist under isotopy in the sense that any isotopic map has an invariant set that is semiconjugate to it.

0. INTRODUCTION

Isotopy stability of dynamics refers to dynamical behavior that persists under isotopy. Since this behavior is present in every homeomorphism in an isotopy class, results about isotopy stability often allow one to gain a great deal of dynamical information about a map given only fairly rough algebraic or combinatorial data about its isotopy class. For example, using the Lefschetz Fixed Point Theorem one can algebraically compute that every map in an isotopy class has a fixed point. Nielsen's work on homeomorphisms of surfaces introduced what is now called the Nielsen class of a fixed point. This work has been generalized and is the content of Nielsen Fixed Point Theory. The use of Nielsen classes yields a refinement of the Lefschetz Theorem that often gives persistence of a larger collection of fixed points. Somewhat surprisingly, the application of this theory to periodic points is comparatively recent with the work of Halpern [Hp2], Jiang [J3], and others. The proceedings [Mc] give a good sense of the current state of the theory.

For periodic points the analysis of isotopy stability begins with a definition of an equivalence relation. The second step is to specify what it means for equivalence classes of periodic points from isotopic maps to correspond. The basic persistence result then gives conditions on an equivalence class which insure that any isotopic map has a nonempty equivalence class of periodic points that corresponds to the given one. This makes precise the meaning of "present in every element of the isotopy class", and it allows one to consider certain classes as invariants of isotopy or as part of the isotopically stable dynamics. Given such a persistence result, the next question is that of a dynamically minimal representatives; is there a map in each isotopy class that has only the forced dynamics and nothing more? More specifically, is there a map which has exactly one periodic point in each isotopically stable equivalence class and no other periodic points?

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The first two sections of this paper concerns theories of this type generated by the two equivalence relations of periodic and strong Nielsen equivalence. Results on the first of these theories are contained in [J3], [HPY], and [HY] and on the second in [AF] and [Hil]. In the case of homeomorphisms of surfaces this paper strengthens and extends certain of these results. In particular, the existence of a dynamically minimal representative is proved as well as necessary and sufficient conditions for an equivalence class of periodic points to be isotopically stable.

The dynamically minimal representative in an isotopy class is a refinement of the Thurston-Nielsen canonical form. There have been a number of papers that have refined this canonical form for dynamical purposes, for example, [S], [BS], and [BL]. A refinement of the Thurston-Nielsen canonical form was also used to prove the existence of a dynamically minimal representative for Nielsen classes of fixed points in the category of surface homeomorphisms. This result was sketched in [J2] and [I], and given in full detail in [JG].

The existence of a dynamically minimal representative with respect to periodic points is somewhat more delicate than that of fixed points. It requires that a single map have the minimal number of periodic points of all periods. The difficulty is that the map that has the least number of fixed points in the isotopy class of f^n may not be itself the n^{th} iterate of a map that has the least number of fixed points in the class of f .

As a simple example, let ϕ be a map of a surface with $\phi^n = Id$ for some (least) n . Further suppose that ϕ has several periodic orbits that have period less than n . As a consequence of Lemma 1.1(aii) and Lemma 2.3 these periodic points are isotopically stable and thus must be present in any dynamically minimal model. On the other hand, since ϕ^n is the identity there is a map in the isotopy class of ϕ^n with just one fixed point. In this example there is *no* map g isotopic to ϕ with the property that g^n has the least number of fixed points in its class for all n . However, Theorem 2.4 shows that there is a homeomorphism isotopic to ϕ that has the least number of periodic points of each period.

The last section discusses a kind of uniformization of the persistent periodic points. These results extend those of [H] and [Ft] to reducible mapping classes. Roughly speaking, one obtains the persistence of orbits that are not periodic by taking the closure of the isotopically stable periodic points. This yields the isotopy stability of essentially all the nontrivial dynamics of the dynamically minimal representative.

The first results on isotopy stability that have this kind of global character appear to be Franks' work on Anosov diffeomorphisms and Shub's work on expanding maps. R. MacKay pointed out to the author that within Differential Geometry results of this type are much older. They go back at least to a paper of Morse on geodesics on surfaces ([M]). A survey of dynamical applications of isotopy stability is given in [Bd2].

1. CONDENSED HOMEOMORPHISMS

This section develops a refinement of the Thurston-Nielsen canonical form for isotopy classes of maps on surfaces. There are two steps in the refinement. The first step involves an alteration of the behavior of the map on the closed reducing annuli between components. The new map is called an adjusted reducible map and is described in Lemma 1.3. The second step is more radical and replaces the map

on a finite-order component by a dynamically simpler map and may involve slightly altering the topology of pseudo-Anosov components and identifying points in adjacent components. The result of this process is called a condensed homeomorphism and is described in Theorem 1.7.

A basic familiarity with Thurston's work on surfaces is assumed. For more information see [T], [FLP], or [CB]. For more information on Nielsen fixed point theory and the analogous theory for periodic points, see [J3].

Throughout this paper M will be a compact, orientable 2-manifold with negative Euler characteristic and perhaps with boundary. Unless otherwise noted, all homeomorphisms $M \rightarrow M$ will be orientation-preserving, and isotopies do not need to fix the boundary of M pointwise. The *period* of a periodic point always means its *least* period, and the notation $\text{per}(x, f) = n$ indicates that x is a periodic point with period n of a homeomorphism $f : M \rightarrow M$. The set of all periodic points with period n is denoted $P_n(f)$, and the set of points fixed by f is $\text{Fix}(f)$. Note that, in general, $\text{Fix}(f^n)$ may be larger than $P_n(f)$.

Given $x, y \in \text{Fix}(f)$, x is *Nielsen equivalent* to y (written $(x, f) \xsim{^{\text{NE}}}(y, f)$, or if the map is clear from the context, $x \xsim{^{\text{NE}}} y$) if there is an arc $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) = x$, $\gamma(1) = y$, and $f(\gamma)$ is homotopic to γ with fixed endpoints. In this case we say that x is *Nielsen equivalent to y via γ* . Given $x, y \in P_n(f)$, x is *periodic Nielsen equivalent* to y if $(x, f^n) \xsim{^{\text{NE}}}(y, f^n)$ (written $(x, f) \xsim{^{\text{PN}}}(y, f)$). It is important to note that our definition of periodic Nielsen equivalent requires that the periodic points have the same least period. This requirement is not completely standard in the literature. Two periodic *orbits* are periodic Nielsen equivalent if periodic points from each orbit are. In what follows, equivalence of both periodic points and periodic orbits will be considered. A certain amount of confusion will probably be avoided if the distinction between these two notions is maintained. Also note that here we primarily consider the geometric notion of Nielsen classes for periodic points. In particular, the phrase "periodic Nielsen class" always refers to a *nonempty* equivalence class of periodic points. For a general account of the algebraic theory see [J3], [HPY], and [HY].

If x and y are periodic points with $(x, f^n) \xsim{^{\text{NE}}}(y, f^n)$ but $n = \text{per}(x, f) > \text{per}(y, f)$, x is said to *collapse* to y (written $(x, f) \vdash (y, f)$ or $x \vdash y$). One periodic orbit is collapsible to another if periodic points from each orbit are.

If the Nielsen equivalence in the various definitions is realized by an arc γ , this is indicated by saying that $x \xsim{^{\text{PN}}} y$ or $x \vdash y$ *via the arc* γ . The periodic points x and y are said to be *related* if $x \xsim{^{\text{PN}}} y$, $x \vdash y$, or $y \vdash x$. A simple consequence of the definition is that when x and y are related, $(x, f^k) \xsim{^{\text{NE}}}(y, f^k)$ for $k = \max\{\text{per}(x, f), \text{per}(y, f)\}$.

It will be useful to extend the notion of periodic Nielsen equivalence to certain closed curves in M . Assume that the closed curve C is fixed setwise by f and x is a fixed point of f . The *invariant curve* C is *Nielsen equivalent to x* if there is an arc $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) \in C$, $\gamma(1) = x$, and $f(\gamma)$ is homotopic to γ via a homotopy F_t with $F_t(0) \in C$ and $F_t(1) = x$ for all t . The notation for this is $(x, f) \xsim{^{\text{NE}}}(C, f)$. The notions of periodic Nielsen equivalence between a point and a curve, equivalence of two periodic curves, and the analogous notions of collapsible are defined in the obvious way.

If $\phi : M \rightarrow M$ is an isometry of a hyperbolic metric, then it is standard that ϕ is *finite-order*, *i.e.* there is some least $n > 0$ (called the *period*) with $\phi^n = \text{Id}$. Con-

versely, when ϕ is finite-order, it is topologically conjugate to an isometry of some hyperbolic metric. In the literature finite-order homeomorphisms are often called “periodic”, but that terminology is avoided for obvious reasons. A periodic point of a finite-order homeomorphism that has the same period as the homeomorphism is called *regular*; any point with lesser period is called a *branch* periodic point. Since only orientation-preserving finite-order maps are considered here, the set of branch periodic points is always finite.

A homeomorphism ϕ is called *pseudoAnosov* (pA) if there exists a number $\lambda > 1$ (called the *expansion constant*) and a pair of transverse measured foliations (\mathcal{F}^u, μ^u) and (\mathcal{F}^s, μ^s) with $\phi(\mathcal{F}^s, \mu^s) = (\mathcal{F}^s, \frac{1}{\lambda}\mu^s)$ and $\phi(\mathcal{F}^u, \mu^u) = (\mathcal{F}^u, \lambda\mu^u)$. For a pA map on a boundary component there is a certain amount of choice involved in the structure of the foliation and with the dynamics. Before giving the choices made here we describe what will be called the *standard model* (the author learned this succinct description from D. Fried).

Roughly speaking, in a neighborhood of a boundary component the standard model of a pA map looks like the map and foliation obtained by blowing up a singularity of a measured foliation. This description is only informal because the blown up map will be continuous only when the original map is differentiable at the singularity. This is not the case in the usual constructions of pA maps (but *cf.* [GK]). The main observation needed to avoid this difficulty is that a pA map is differentiable at regular points and the behavior at other singularities can be obtained by using branched covers.

There are three main cases for boundary behavior that correspond to three situations for an interior singularity: the singularity is fixed by the pA map and the prongs do not rotate, the singularity is fixed and the prongs rotate, and the singularity is a periodic point. We first describe the standard model on the boundary that corresponds to the case of a fixed, nonrotating prong.

Let $L : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be the linear map with matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$$

Replace the origin of \mathbb{R}^2 with a boundary circle C and let R' be the resulting space. Now use the action of L on lines to define a homeomorphism $L' : R' \rightarrow R'$. The stable and unstable foliation of L induce a stable and unstable foliation on R' . These stable and unstable foliations and the homeomorphism L' give the standard model for a pA map in the neighborhood of a boundary component that corresponds to a regular point. For a boundary component that corresponds to a one-prong, take this model and project it via $z \mapsto z^2$. For a boundary component that corresponds to a k -prong, take this one-prong model and lift it to the cover that has projection $z \mapsto z^k$. Figure 1a shows the dynamics at an interior three-prong singularity and Figure 1b shows an analogous boundary component in the standard model. Note that the curves in these figures indicate the motion of orbits and not necessarily leaves of the foliations. The segments between the singularities on the boundary will be termed *degenerate leaves* and are considered leaves of both the stable and unstable foliation. One has to allow for this degeneracy in the definition of *transverse measured foliations*.

As constructed, in a boundary component of the standard model that corresponds to a fixed, nonrotating singularity, the degenerate leaves consist of orbits

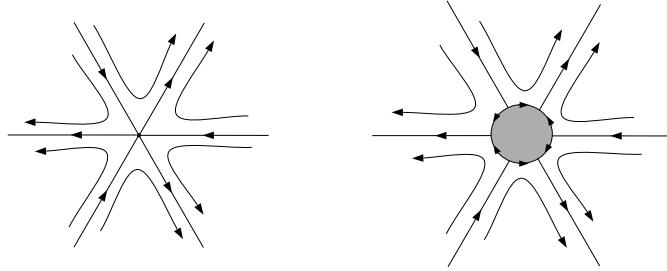


FIGURE 1. (a) Dynamics of a pA map at a three-prong singularity. (b) Dynamics at the boundary analog of (a) in the standard model of a pA map.

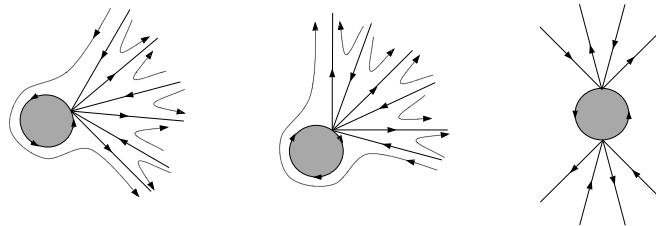


FIGURE 2. (a) The dynamics of a boundary-adjusted pA map at the boundary analog of a non-rotating three-pronged singularity. (b) Same as (a) but the result of a different collapse. (c) The dynamics of a boundary-adjusted pA map at the boundary analog of a four-pronged singularity with rotation number $1/2$.

that are heteroclinic from the intersection of the stable leaves with the boundary to the intersection of the unstable leaves with the boundary. (One may also adjust things to make the map the identity on these segments, see [GK] and [JG].) In the analog of fixed, rotating singularity, this model on the boundary is composed with the appropriate rigid rotation. In the analog of a singularity that is a periodic point, this model is composed with the appropriate translation of one boundary component onto another.

Since a goal of this paper is to create models in each isotopy class that have the least dynamics possible, the standard model on the boundary needs some minor adjustments. For the analog of a fixed, nonrotating prong the necessary modification is achieved by collapsing down all the degenerate leaves except one. The dynamics in this case are just those that descend from the standard model, *i.e.*, the boundary consists of a fixed point and a homoclinic loop. There are two non-conjugate choices for the collapse. These are shown in Figures 2(a) and 2(b) for the boundary analog of a non-rotating three-prong singularity. In the analog of a fixed, rotating m -prong the form of the collapse depends on the rotation number of the orbits on the boundary circle in the standard model. If this rotation number is p/q with p and q relatively prime, one collapses down collections of adjacent groups of $2m/q - 1$ degenerate leaves. This will leave a single period q orbit on the boundary whose points are connected by homoclinic segments. The result of the collapse for a four-prong singularity with rotation number $1/2$ is shown in Figure 2(c).

If the boundary component is moved off itself by the pA map, the appropriate collapse is chosen based on whether the prongs are rotated or not when the component's forward orbit first lands on itself. PseudoAnosov homeomorphisms with this collapsed boundary behavior will be called *boundary-adjusted* pA. It is clear that a boundary-adjusted pA and the corresponding standard model are conjugate on the interior of M .

The first lemma describes the relations among the periodic points of pA and finite-order maps.

Lemma 1.1.

- (a) If $\phi : M \rightarrow M$ is finite-order, then
 - (i) Each regular periodic point is periodic Nielsen equivalent to every other regular periodic point.
 - (ii) All branch periodic points are unrelated to each other and are not periodic Nielsen equivalent or collapsible to any boundary component.
 - (iii) Each regular periodic point is collapsible to any branch periodic point.
- (b) If $\phi : M \rightarrow M$ is boundary-adjusted pA, then
 - (i) Each interior periodic point is unrelated to any other periodic point.
 - (ii) Each boundary periodic point is periodic Nielsen equivalent to every periodic point on its orbit that is contained in the same boundary component and is unrelated to any other periodic point.
 - (iii) Each boundary component is unrelated to any periodic point except the periodic points it contains and is unrelated to any other boundary component.
 - (iv) If a boundary component b is periodic Nielsen equivalent to itself via an arc γ , then γ is null homotopic via a homotopy that constrains the endpoints of γ to lie on b .

Proof. (a) (cf. [J1], Section 7) We prove (ii) first. Assume x and y are two branch periodic orbits and $(x, \phi^k) \stackrel{NE}{\sim} (y, \phi^k)$ via an arc γ with k less than the period of ϕ . Since ϕ is a hyperbolic isometry, the unique geodesic isotopic to γ with fixed endpoints is fixed by ϕ^k . Because ϕ is orientation-preserving, this implies that $\phi^k = Id$, a contradiction. The second part of (ii) proved like the first after blowing down the boundary components of M to points. Parts (i) and (iii) are easy consequences of the fact that $\phi^n = Id$.

(b) This has been essentially proven by many authors, *eg.* [BK], [H], [I], and [JG]. We will remark in Section 3 how the methods of [H] can be adapted to deal with the assertions involving the boundary. \square

The Thurston-Nielsen classification theorem for isotopy classes of surface homeomorphisms gives a (fairly) canonical representative in each isotopy class. These representatives are constructed from pA and finite-order pieces glued together along annuli in which twisting may occur. More precisely, a homeomorphism ϕ is called *reducible* if there exists a collection of pairwise disjoint simple closed curves, $\Gamma = \{\Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, \dots, \Gamma_k\}$, in $\text{int}(M)$ with $\phi(\Gamma) = \Gamma$ and each connected component of $M - \Gamma$ has negative Euler characteristic. Further, Γ comes equipped with a ϕ -invariant open tubular neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(\Gamma)$. The connected components

of $M - \mathcal{N}(\Gamma)$ are called the *components* of ϕ . The orbit of a component under ϕ is called a ϕ -*component*. For a subset $X \subset M$, its orbit under ϕ is denoted $o(X)$.

Thurston-Nielsen Classification Theorem. *Every orientation preserving homeomorphism of an orientable surface with negative Euler characteristic is isotopic to a homeomorphism ϕ such that either*

- (a) ϕ is pseudoAnosov, or
- (b) ϕ is finite-order, or
- (c) ϕ is reducible and on each ϕ -component, ϕ satisfies (a) or (b).

A map ϕ as in part (c) of the theorem above is called *TN-reducible*. The curves of Γ are called *reducing curves*. The connected components of $Cl(\mathcal{N}(\Gamma))$ are called *reducing annuli* and the reducing annulus containing Γ_i is denoted $A(\Gamma_i)$. Two components are called *adjacent* if they each share a boundary curve with the same reducing annuli. Note that a component can be adjacent to itself.

If Γ_i is a reducing curve and for some n , $\phi^n(\Gamma_i) = \Gamma_i$ with the orientation on Γ_i reversed, then Γ_i is called a *flipped reducing curve*. In this case the reducing annulus $A(\Gamma_i)$ is called a *flipped reducing annulus*.

The next lemma provides tools for working with flipped reducing annuli. The annulus $A = S^1 \times [-1, 1]$ has universal cover $\tilde{A} = \mathbb{R} \times [-1, 1]$. For a orientation preserving circle homeomorphism f , $\rho(f)$ denotes the rotation number of f .

Lemma 1.2. *Let $f : A \rightarrow A$ be an orientation preserving homeomorphism which interchanges the boundary components of A .*

- (a) *If for $i = 1, 2$, b_i denotes f^2 restricted to $S^1 \times \{i\}$, then $\rho(b_{-1}) = -\rho(b_1)$*
- (b) *There exists a homeomorphism g that is isotopic to f rel the boundary of A , is equal to f on the boundary of A , and the only periodic points of g in the interior of A are two fixed points that have nonzero index and are not Nielsen equivalent.*

Proof. Pick a lift $\tilde{f} : \tilde{A} \rightarrow \tilde{A}$ and let $S : \tilde{A} \rightarrow \tilde{A}$ be given by $S(x, y) = (-x, -y)$. Note that $S^2 = Id$ and if $\tilde{h} := S\tilde{f}$, then \tilde{h} is the lift of an orientation and boundary preserving homeomorphism of A and $\tilde{f} = S\tilde{h}$. For $i = 1, 2$, let \tilde{h}_i and \tilde{b}_i denote \tilde{h} and \tilde{f}^2 restricted to $S^1 \times \{i\}$, respectively, and $T : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by $T(x) = -x$. We then have $\tilde{b}_{-1} = T\tilde{h}_1T\tilde{h}_{-1}$ and $\tilde{b}_1 = T\tilde{h}_{-1}T\tilde{h}_1$ which implies $(T\tilde{h}_1)^{-1}\tilde{b}_{-1}(T\tilde{h}_1) = \tilde{b}_1$. Since $T\tilde{h}_1$ is orientation reversing, $\rho(b_{-1}) = -\rho(b_1)$, proving (a).

To prove (b), let S also denote the projection of the involution to A and $h := S \circ f$. In addition, let $C_r = S^1 \times \{r\}$ for $r \in [-1, 1]$, and for $i = -1, 1$ let α_i be h restricted to C_i . Since each α_i is an orientation preserving circle homeomorphism, there is a family of such homeomorphisms α_r interpolating α_{-1} to α_1 so that $\alpha_r = id$ for $r \in [-1/4, 1/4]$. Now define $\alpha : A \rightarrow A$ so that α restricted to each C_r is α_r . Thus $h \circ \alpha^{-1} = id$ on the boundary of A , and so by the Alexander trick, $h \circ \alpha^{-1} \simeq id$ rel the boundary of A .

Now let ψ_t be flow shown in Figure 3 which we assume has been constructed so that it commutes with the involution S and is the identity on the boundary of A . If $g' = \psi_1 \circ \alpha$, then $g' = \psi_1$ on $S^1 \times [-1/4, 1/4]$, and any points not in that sub-annulus and not on the boundary of A will have their ω -limit set under g' in the sub-annulus. Further, rel the boundary, $g := S \circ g' \simeq S \circ \alpha \simeq S \circ h = f$ and so g is as required for part (b). \square

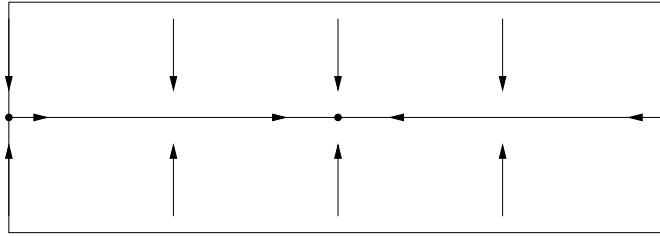


FIGURE 3. The flow ψ_t on the annulus used in the proof of Lemma 1.2.
The fixed point at the left is at the point $(0,0)$.

If ϕ is a TN-reducible map, a reducing annulus always has periodic points on both of its boundaries. These periodic points are termed *peripheral*. Note that peripheral periodic points for a finite-order component are always regular. If there are periodic points on distinct boundary components of a reducing annulus that are periodic Nielsen equivalent, the reducing annulus is called *untwisted*. An unflipped reducing annulus A with $\phi^n(A) = A$ is untwisted if and only if the boundary components have the same rotation number in the lift of the restriction of ϕ^n to the universal cover of the annulus. A flipped reducing annulus A is untwisted if and only if the same condition holds for ϕ^{2n} . Using Lemma 1.2 this happens if and only if ϕ^{2n} has fixed points on both boundaries of A .

The next lemma gives the form of our first refinement of a TN-reducible map.

Lemma 1.3. *Any TN-reducible map, ϕ , is isotopic to a reducible map that satisfies:*

- (a) *All pA components are boundary-adjusted.*
- (b) *There are no periodic points in the interior of unflipped reducing annuli.*
- (c) *The interior of each flipped reducing annulus contains exactly two periodic points. These periodic points have nonzero index and are not periodic Nielsen equivalent.*
- (d) *There are no untwisted reducing annuli connecting adjacent finite-order components.*

Proof. Starting with the TN-reducible map, ϕ , first replace all the maps on pA components by the appropriate boundary-adjusted pA. The construction of boundary-adjusted pA maps makes it clear that this can be done within the isotopy class. The behavior in part (b) can then be arranged in each unflipped reducing annuli by composing with a sufficiently strong push from one boundary circle towards the other. The behavior in part (c) can be arranged in each flipped reducing annulus using Lemma 1.2(b). The last step is to show that part (d) holds after eliminating unnecessary reducing annuli.

Let ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 be finite-order maps on adjacent ϕ -components N_1 and N_2 which each share a boundary with the untwisted reducing annulus A . Because peripheral periodic points of finite-order components are always regular for the component, the definition of untwisted reducing annulus yields that ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 have the same period, say n . Again using the fact that A is untwisted, ϕ restricted to $N_1 \cup N_2 \cup o(A)$ must have its n^{th} iterate isotopic to the identity. A theorem stated by Nielsen (now contained in the classification theorem) implies that ϕ restricted to $N_1 \cup N_2 \cup o(A)$ is isotopic to a single finite-order map of period n . Thus the reducing annulus A can be eliminated. \square

A reducible map as in Lemma 1.3 will be called *adjusted*. If γ is an arc connecting points x and y , γ is said to *essentially intersect* a set X if any arc homotopic to γ with fixed endpoints has nonempty intersection with X .

Lemma 1.4. *Let ϕ_1 be a adjusted reducible map. If x and y are periodic points of ϕ_1 that are not contained in the interior of a flipped reducing annulus and either $x \xrightarrow{P_N} y$ or $x \vdash y$ via the arc γ then:*

- (a) *If γ essentially intersects a reducing curve Γ_0 , then both x and y are related to Γ_0 . If γ essentially intersects two reducing curves Γ_1 and Γ_2 , then Γ_1 is related to Γ_2 .*
- (b) *The arc γ does not essentially intersect the interior of any pA component.*
- (c) *If γ essentially intersects a reducing curve Γ_0 , then the reducing annulus $A(\Gamma_0)$ is untwisted.*
- (d) *The arc γ cannot essentially intersect two finite-order components.*

Proof. (a) This will be proved (independently) in Section 3 as the proof uses the covering space techniques introduced there.

(b) Denote by N the pA component that is essentially intersected by γ . There are two main cases to consider. First assume that $x \in \text{Int}(N)$. If y is also in $\text{Int}(N)$, then Lemma 1.1b(i) implies that γ must essentially intersect some reducing curve. This must also be the case if $y \notin \text{Int}(N)$. Let Γ_1 denote the first such curve encountered as one traverses γ outward from x . If b is a boundary component of N that is shared with $A(\Gamma_1)$, then (a) shows that x is related to b contradicting Lemma 1.1b(iii).

The second case to be considered is when neither x nor y are in $\text{Int}(N)$. In this case we can isotope γ with fixed endpoints to γ_1 that essentially intersects two boundary components of N , b_1 and b_2 , with the portion of γ_1 between the intersections contained in the interior of N . If $b_1 \neq b_2$, then again using (a) we get a contradiction to Lemma 1.1b(iii) and if $b_1 = b_2$, a contradiction to Lemma 1.1b(iv).

(c) By (b), the periodic points x and y can only be peripheral pA or finite-order. Thus if γ does not essentially intersect a finite-order component, then x and y must be on the two boundary components of the reducing annulus $A(\Gamma_0)$. Since for an annulus homeomorphism periodic points on different boundary components cannot collapse to each other, the only possibility is that $x \xrightarrow{P_N} y$, and so $A(\Gamma_0)$ is untwisted.

Assume now that γ is a simple arc and essentially intersects a nonempty collection of finite-order components, N_1, N_2, \dots, N_k . Further assume that y is contained in a finite-order component and x is a peripheral pA periodic point that lies on a closed curve C_1 that is the boundary of a reducing annulus A_1 . Let m be such that $\phi_1^m(x) = x$ and $\phi_1^m = \text{Id}$ on all N_i . Now pick y' contained on a boundary component C_2 of the finite-order component which contains y . There is an arc γ' so that $(x, \phi_1^m) \xrightarrow{N_E} (y', \phi_1^m)$ via γ' , and γ' essentially intersects the same reducing curves as γ .

Now choose a pair of pants decomposition of $A_1 \cup (\bigcup_{i=1}^k N_i)$ which refines the collection of reducing curves (with the exception of the curve adjacent to C_1) and consider the Dehn-Thurston parameterization of closed curves and simple arcs with endpoints on the boundary using this decomposition (see [FLP], exposé 4 or [PH], §1.2) If any reducing curve that essentially intersects γ were contained in an twisted reducing annulus, then the twist parameter of the parameterization at this curve

for γ' and $\phi^m(\gamma')$ would be different. This would imply that γ' and $\phi^m(\gamma')$ are not homotopic, a contradiction.

The proof when x and y are in other positions is similar. If the given γ is not simple, pass to a finite cover in which it is homotopic with fixed endpoints to a simple arc. The result on the simple arc in this cover implies the result in the base.

(d) This follows from (b), (c) and the property given in Lemma 1.3(d). \square

The next proposition describes all the relations among periodic points of adjusted reducible homeomorphisms. A given set of relations among periodic points is said to *generate* a (perhaps) larger collection if the given set and the following properties give rise to all the relations.

- (1) Periodic Nielsen equivalence is an equivalence relation on periodic points of the same period.
- (2) $x \xrightarrow{PN} y$ and $y \vdash z$ implies $x \vdash z$.
- (3) $x \vdash y$ and $y \xrightarrow{PN} z$ implies $x \vdash z$.

Although it will not be needed here, it is perhaps worth noting that these properties show that \vdash induces an order relation on the set of periodic Nielsen equivalence classes. It is easy to see that it is transitive and a minor alteration in the definition of \vdash (allow $\text{per}(x) \geq \text{per}(y)$) will give a partial order on these equivalence classes. This is essentially the direct system of weighted sets discussed in [J3], Section III.3.

Proposition 1.5: *When the following relations exist they generate all relations among periodic points of an adjusted reducible homeomorphism ϕ_1 .*

- (a) *A peripheral pA periodic point is periodic Nielsen equivalent to other periodic points on its orbit or to an adjacent peripheral pA or to an adjacent peripheral finite-order periodic point.*
- (b) *A peripheral pA periodic point is collapsible to a periodic point with half its period in the interior of an adjacent flipped, untwisted reducing annulus.*
- (c) *A regular finite-order periodic point is periodic Nielsen equivalent to another regular finite-order periodic point in the same component.*
- (d) *A regular finite-order periodic point is collapsible to a branch finite-order periodic point in the same component.*

Proof. By Lemma 1.4(b) a periodic point in the interior of a pA component is unrelated to any other periodic point. The remaining types of periodic points are finite-order, peripheral pA and periodic points in the interior of flipped reducing annuli. By Lemma 1.3(c), a periodic point in the interior of a flipped reducing annulus A is not periodic Nielsen equivalent to the other periodic point in the interior of the same reducing annulus and is only related to periodic points on the boundary if A is untwisted. Since A is flipped the adjacent components must have the same type. By Lemma 1.3(d), if A is untwisted this type cannot be finite-order and the adjacent components must therefore both be pA. As a consequence, (b) gives the only possible relations for periodic points in the interior of flipped reducing annuli.

Now by Lemma 1.4 (b) and (d), finite-order and peripheral pA periodic points can only be related by a γ that essentially intersects the interior of at most one component and this component must be finite-order. Using Lemma 1.4(b) and (c), if a peripheral pA periodic point x is related to a periodic point not on its orbit, x must lie on the boundary of a untwisted reducing annulus and thus be periodic Nielsen equivalent to a periodic point, say z , on the other boundary of A . The case

when the reducing annulus is flipped was dealt with in the previous paragraph, so assume that the reducing annulus is unflipped. If the adjacent component is pA, again by Lemma 1.4(b), x is periodic Nielsen equivalent to z and is unrelated to any periodic points not on the orbit of x and z . The second case is when the adjacent component is finite-order. Now from Lemma 1.4(b) and (d), a finite-order periodic point is related only to other finite-order periodic points in the same component or to peripheral periodic points in adjacent pA components. Thus the only new relations possible for z (and thus for x) are: collapse to a branch periodic point in the same finite-order component, periodic Nielsen equivalence to a regular periodic point in the same finite-order component, and periodic Nielsen equivalence to a peripheral periodic point in an adjacent pA component. All these relations are generated by those given in the statement of the lemma. \square

Having specified all the relations among the periodic points of an adjusted reducible homeomorphism ϕ_1 , the next step is to construct a homeomorphism isotopic to ϕ_1 that eliminates as many of these relations as possible. This is done by coalescing any periodic orbits that are periodic Nielsen equivalent and collapsing down those that are collapsible. In this process it may be necessary to make minor changes in the topological type of the components of ϕ_1 .

We first need a proposition about the existence of homeomorphisms with specified fixed point behavior. The proof is routine but we shall need some special features of the homeomorphisms contained in the proof. The statement and use of Proposition 1.6 is similar to those of Theorem 4 in [Hp1]. The *index* of a fixed point p with respect to f is denoted $I(p, f)$ (see for example, [J3]). The index of a periodic point p with $\text{per}(p, f) = n$ is $I(p, f^n)$.

Proposition 1.6: *Let M be a compact, connected orientable surface with genus g and b boundary components and let n be a given positive integer. There exists a homeomorphism $H : M \rightarrow M$ isotopic to the identity which has n fixed points and no other periodic points. Further, except for the cases where $\chi(M) = 0$ and $n = 1$, the fixed points of H have nonzero index.*

Proof. The homeomorphism H will be the time-one map of a flow and is thus isotopic to the identity. The first (and rather special) case is the sphere ($g = b = 0$). When $n = 1$, let H be the flow that has a single parabolic fixed point at the North Pole. For $n = 2$ use the North Pole/South Pole gradient flow. When $n = 2k + 1$ or $n = 2k + 2$, put k sink-saddle pairs into the flows for $n = 1$ and $n = 2$, respectively.

The flow for the case $g = 0$, $b = 1$ and $n = 2$ is shown in Figure 4(a). The dynamics of H restricted to the boundary is rotation by an irrational amount. The flow spirals outward from the boundary towards the homoclinic loop. The fixed point that is not at the center of the bouquet of circles is a spiral source and the flow nearby spirals out towards the homoclinic loop. The region to the exterior of the bouquet consists of a single parabolic component, *i.e.* all the orbits in the region are homoclinic to the fixed point at the center of the bouquet. For the case when $g = 0$ and $b > 1$, add more homoclinic loops with boundary sources inside. For other values of n , add or subtract homoclinic loops with spiral sources inside. The case $g = 0$, $b = 1$ and $n = 1$ is somewhat special in that the single fixed point will be a saddlenode and have zero index.

The flow for the case $g = b = n = 1$ is shown in Figure 4(b). The arrows and labels on the edges indicate the identification as well as the flow direction. There

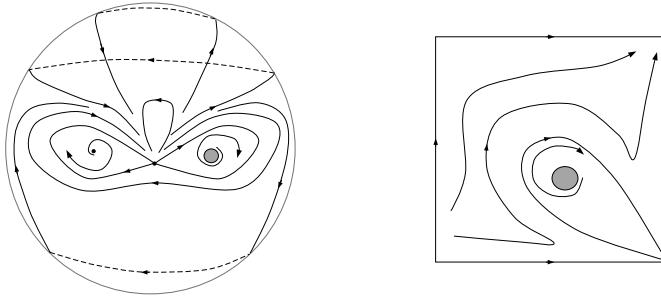


FIGURE 4. (a) A flow illustrating Proposition 1.6 for the case $g = 0$, $b = 1$, and $n = 2$. (b) Same as (a) but for $g = b = n = 1$.

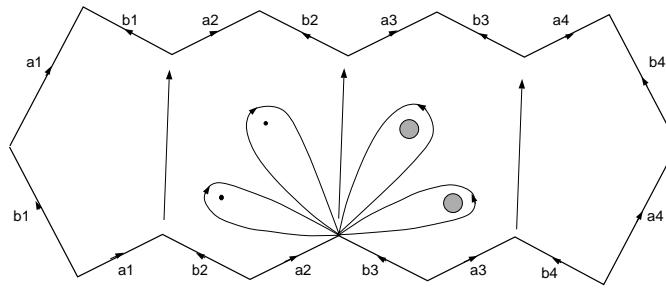


FIGURE 5. A flow illustrating Proposition 1.6 for the case $g = 4$ and $b = n = 2$.

is a fixed point at the corners. Once again, for larger values of b and n add more homoclinic loops with boundary sources or spiral sources inside.

For various values of n when $g = 1$ and $b = 0$, use a similar construction but this time there will be no boundary components inside homoclinic loops. The case $n = 1$ will have a fixed point with zero index.

A similar construction using a bouquet of circles also works when $g > 1$. An example is shown in Figure 5 for the case $g = 4$, $b = 2$, and $n = 3$. The letters on the boundary indicate identifications \square

In a construction below the fixed points of the homeomorphism H from Proposition 1.6 will be lifted to periodic points in a perhaps branched cover. For this application it is essential that the lifted periodic points have nonzero index. If the fixed point of H is the image of regular points in the cover, this is obvious. If the fixed point p of H is the image of a branch point, then the covering projection in a neighborhood of p looks like $z \mapsto z^k$ for some $k > 1$.

When the dynamics in a neighborhood of a fixed point can be decomposed into a finite number of sectors with each sector invariant and h of them hyperbolic, p of them parabolic, and the rest of them attracting or repelling, then the index of the fixed point is $1 + p/2 - h/2$. If this fixed point is the image of a degree k branch point, the index of the upstairs periodic point under an appropriate iterate that fixes it is $1 + k(p/2 - h/2)$ if there is no local rotation and $+1$ if there is. Thus, *even if the index of the fixed point in the base is zero*, the index of the periodic point in the cover is never zero. We note for future reference that the fixed

points of the homeomorphisms constructed in Proposition 1.6 all have a nice sector decomposition, and so this fact is valid for these maps.

We now begin the construction of the next refinement of the Thurston-Nielsen canonical form. It alters an adjusted reducible homeomorphism ϕ_1 to produce what will be called a condensed homeomorphism. There are a number of cases to consider corresponding to different types of ϕ_1 -components. In every case, N will denote the ϕ_1 -component under consideration and ϕ denotes ϕ_1 restricted to N . The end result in each case will be a new homeomorphism h to take the place of ϕ and a new topological space N° (perhaps not a manifold) to take the place of N .

In a slight abuse of language, a boundary component of N that is the boundary circle of an untwisted reducing annulus will be called an *untwisted boundary circle*. Let U be the set of all untwisted boundary circles in N .

The first four cases involve finite-order components. In this case the quotient space N/ϕ is denoted N^* . It is standard that N^* is a manifold and $\pi : N \rightarrow N^*$ is a branched cover whose upstairs branch points are precisely the branch periodic points of ϕ . In the discussion of the various finite-order cases Proposition 1.6 will be used to construct a homeomorphism $h^* : N^* \rightarrow N^*$ with special properties. The map h^* is always isotopic to the identity so it has a lift h to N that is isotopic to ϕ . Furthermore, h will have the property that all its periodic points have nonzero index.

Case 1: Assume that ϕ is finite-order, has no branch periodic points, and N has no untwisted boundary circles. Pick a homeomorphism $h^* : N^* \rightarrow N^*$ that has one fixed point p^* and no other periodic points. Since in the case at hand $\pi : N \rightarrow N^*$ is a regular cover and $\chi(N) < 0$, we have that $\chi(N^*) < 0$ and so $I(p^*, h^*) < 0$. Now lift h^* to a homeomorphism $h : N \rightarrow N$ that has only one periodic orbit and that orbit has nonzero index. In this case let $N^\circ = N$.

Case 2: Assume that ϕ is finite-order, has no branch periodic points, and N has untwisted boundary circles. Let $U^* = \pi(U)$. As in Case 1, $\pi : N \rightarrow N^*$ is a regular cover, so $\chi(N^*) < 0$. Using Proposition 1.6, choose h^* which has a single fixed point. Let $R^* \subset N^*$ denote the subset of the bouquet of circles used in the construction of h^* which has the property that each circle in R^* encloses an element of U^* . Now lift h^* to a homeomorphism $h : N \rightarrow N$ that has one periodic orbit and that periodic orbit has nonzero index. If B^* is the open region bounded by R^* and U^* , let $N^\circ = N - \pi^{-1}(B^* \cup U^*)$.

Case 3: Assume that ϕ is finite-order, has branch periodic points, and N has no untwisted boundary circles. Let P^* denote the projection of the set of all branch periodic points to N^* . Using Proposition 1.6 construct h^* which has fixed points only at points of P^* and no other periodic points. Let $h : N \rightarrow N$ be the lift of h^* . By the remark after Proposition 1.6, each branch periodic point in N has nonzero index under h . In this case let $N^\circ = N$.

Case 4: Assume that ϕ is finite-order, has branch periodic points, and N has untwisted boundary circles. Using Proposition 1.6 construct h^* so that it has fixed points only at points of P^* and the points of P have nonzero index under the lift h . As in Case 2, let $R^* \subset N^*$ denote the subset of the bouquet of circles used in construction of h^* which has the property that each circle in R^* encloses an element of U^* . In this case one may have to adjust R^* to make sure that no point of P^* is enclosed by a circle of R^* . By the remark after Proposition 1.6, each branch periodic point in N has nonzero index under h . Define N° as in Case 2.

Case 5: Assume ϕ is boundary-adjusted pA. In this case let $h = \phi$ and $N^\circ = N$.

The next step in the process is to produce a map Φ that is isotopic to the given adjusted reducible map ϕ_1 by gluing the new versions of the components and maps together. There are once again a number of cases depending on the character of the adjacent components. In every case the new map Φ will be equal to the new component map h on the interior of the new component N° . In certain cases a closed pA component or a reducing annulus will have its topological type altered by the gluing. The structure of and the dynamics on reducing annuli must also be specified.

For adjacent ϕ_1 -components N^1 and N^2 , we will denote the corresponding new maps and spaces constructed in Cases 1–5 above as h^1 , $N^{\circ 1}$, etc., and the old maps as ϕ^1 and ϕ^2 . A reducing annuli between N^1 and N^2 will be called A , and its ϕ_1 orbit denoted by $o(A)$.

If N^1 and N^2 are both pA and A is twisted, no alteration is necessary. This means that Φ restricted to $o(A)$ is the same as ϕ_1 restricted to $o(A)$.

For pA components that adjoin an untwisted unflipped annulus A , we may assume that the dynamics on the two boundaries of A are the same so we simply glue these boundaries together eliminating the reducing annulus.

If N^1 and N^2 are pA and finite-order, respectively, and A is twisted then pick an isotopy of ϕ^2 to h^2 . Extend this to an isotopy on $N^2 \cup o(A)$ which starts at ϕ_1 restricted to $N^2 \cup o(A)$ and ends with a homeomorphism called, say, F . Now compose F restricted to $o(A)$ with a push towards a boundary to insure it has no interior periodic points, and let Φ restricted to $o(A)$ be the resulting map. The case where both N^1 and N^2 are finite-order and A is twisted is similar.

Assume now that A is flipped and untwisted. As noted after Lemma 1.2, if n is the least positive integer with $\phi^n(A) = A$, then ϕ^{2n} has fixed points on both boundaries of A . Further, N^1 and N^2 have the same type and by Lemma 1.3(d) they are pA. These imply that the boundary adjusted pA on N^1 and N^2 has exactly one singularity on each boundary of A . By the construction of the adjusted reducible homeomorphism, ϕ^{2n} restricted to A consists of the time n map of the flow shown in Figure 3 composed with a rigid flip. Remove the region between the boundary of A and the homoclinic loops labeled R^* in Figure 3 and glue the boundaries of N^1 and N^2 onto the loops, identifying the singularities with the periodic point at the “pinch point” of R^* . A similar gluing is also done on each component of the ϕ orbit of N^1 , N^2 , and A . If prior to the gluing the motion along the homoclinic loops in R^* and the boundary of N^1 and N^2 has been properly adjusted, then one can define a homeomorphism on the ϕ orbit of the new space that is isotopic to ϕ and is equal to ϕ in the interiors of the ϕ orbit of N^1 , N^2 , and the new pinched version of A .

Since by Lemma 2(c) there are no untwisted reducing annuli between adjacent finite-order components, the last possibility is when N_1 is pA and N_2 is finite-order and A is untwisted. Now Cases 2 and 4 above were designed precisely so that in this situation we could eliminate the reducing annuli and directly glue the components together. If the finite-order component is as in Case 4, this gluing will involve identifying certain peripheral periodic points of the pA component as they collapse down to the branch periodic point in the finite-order component. The only caution in this process is that we must make sure that the direction of dynamics on the bouquet of circles R matches that on the boundary of the pA component to which it is glued. For this one may have to adjust the choice of degenerate leaves that are collapsed when constructing the boundary-adjusted pA map.

The homeomorphism Φ that results from this process is called *condensed*. Figure 6 illustrates an example of the various stages of the construction. The center piece shown in Figure 6(a) is a finite-order component N with a component map which is simply a rotation by 180° about a horizontal axis. The fixed point labeled p is the only branch periodic point. The adjacent components are all pA , and all reducing annuli are untwisted. This means that the component N falls into Case 4 above. The quotient manifold N^* and the bouquet of circles R^* is shown in Figure 6(b). Figure 6(c) shows the manifold after the region in N outside R has been cut off and the components reglued.

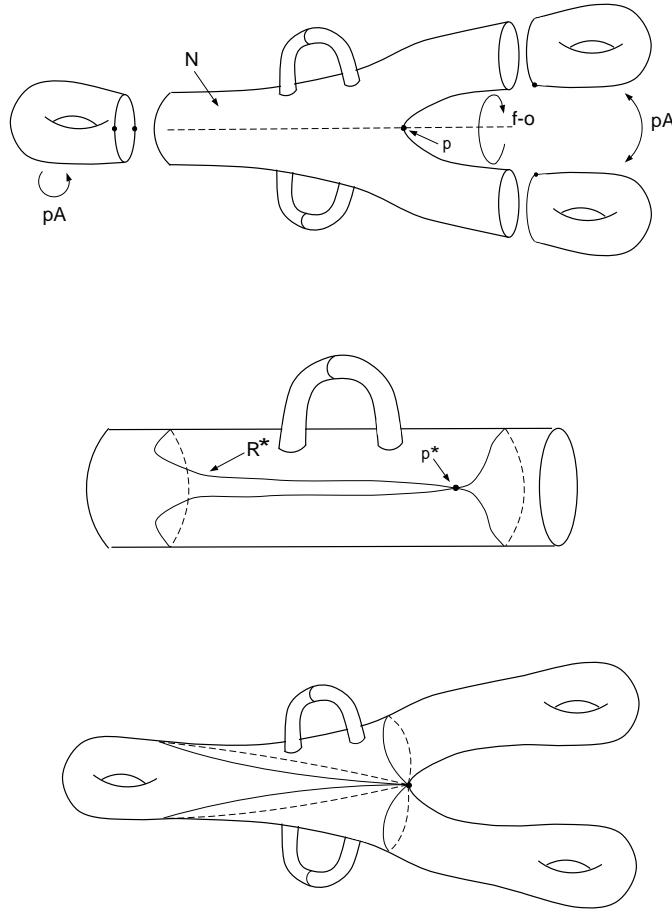


FIGURE 6. (a) A T-N reducible map on a genus 5 surface. (b) The quotient manifold for the central component of (a) that is used in the Case 4 construction. (c) The reglued manifold with a condensed homeomorphism in the isotopy class of (a).

There was a certain amount of choice involved in the construction of a condensed homeomorphism. In particular, even up to conjugacy there is usually not a unique condensed homeomorphism in an isotopy class. However, the construction was defined so that it eliminated most of the relations among periodic points given in

Proposition 1.5. The possible exceptions are peripheral and boundary pA periodic points and regular periodic points in finite-order components that have no branch periodic points. These periodic points all have the property that they can be periodic Nielsen equivalent to another point on their orbit. It is immediate from Lemma 2.1 that these periodic points are uncollapsible and therefore unremovable. This implies that these relations cannot be eliminated in the isotopy class.

Another important property of condensed homeomorphisms is that each periodic point has nonzero index. It is a standard fact that this is true for the interior and boundary pA periodic points. The construction guarantees this property for peripheral pA and finite-order periodic points as well as periodic points in the interior of flipped reducing annuli.

Restricting attention to periodic *orbits* we have:

Theorem 1.7:. *Every orientation-preserving homeomorphism of an orientable compact surface is isotopic to a condensed homeomorphism. A condensed homeomorphism has no relations among its periodic orbits and each periodic point has nonzero index.*

We have given the construction for this theorem in the case of negative Euler characteristic. The other cases can be easily handled case by case.

2. DYNAMICALLY MINIMAL MODELS AND PERSISTENCE OF PERIODIC POINTS

This section deals with the stability of periodic points under isotopy in terms of periodic Nielsen equivalent and in terms of a stronger equivalence relation on periodic points called strong Nielsen equivalent. The main persistence result is Lemma 2.3 which builds on work of Jiang ([J3]) and Hall ([H1]). This result allows us to conclude that all the periodic points of a condensed homeomorphism persist under isotopy (Theorem 2.4). Corollary 2.5 gives necessary and sufficient conditions for the persistence of a periodic point for a surface homeomorphism.

Although we focus here on homeomorphisms of surfaces, many of the results in this section are true in a more general context.

Up to this point periodic Nielsen equivalence has been discussed using arcs in the surface. There is an equivalent formulation using covering spaces. Let \tilde{M} be the universal cover of M . Fix an identification of $\pi_1(M) := \pi_1$ with the group of covering translations of \tilde{M} . If we fix a reference lift $\tilde{f} : \tilde{M} \rightarrow \tilde{M}$ of f , any lift of f^n can be written as $\sigma \tilde{f}^n$ for some $\sigma \in \pi_1$. It is easy to check that two periodic points x and y are periodic Nielsen equivalent if and only if there exists lifts \tilde{x} , \tilde{y} and an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ with $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$ and $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$. Similarly, if C is a simple closed curve with $f^n(C) = C$, then x and C are periodic Nielsen equivalent if and only if there exists lifts \tilde{x} , \tilde{C} and an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ with $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$ and $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{C}) = \tilde{C}$ setwise. The equivalence class of x under periodic Nielsen equivalence is $PNC(x, f)$.

Two lifts of f , \tilde{f}_1 and \tilde{f}_2 , are said to be in the same *lifting class* if there is an $\sigma \in \pi_1$ with $\sigma \tilde{f}_1 \sigma^{-1} = \tilde{f}_2$. The lifting class of \tilde{f} is denoted $[\tilde{f}]$. If for a lift \tilde{x} of x , the element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ is such that $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$, then the *lifting class* of x is $LC(x, f^n) = [\sigma \tilde{f}^n]$. It is easy to check that this definition is independent of the choice of the lift \tilde{x} and if $(y, f) \xrightarrow{P_N} (x, f)$, then $LC(y, f^n) = LC(x, f^n)$. It thus makes sense to talk about the lifting class of a periodic Nielsen class.

A lifting class ℓ of f^n is called *collapsible* if there is a $\sigma \in \pi_1$ and an integer k with $n = mk$ and $1 \leq k < n$ so that $\ell = [(\sigma \tilde{f}^k)^m]$. The next lemma connects the notion of a collapsible lifting class with the notion of collapsible periodic points introduced in the last section. What is termed “uncollapsible” here is what was called “irreducible” in [J3], page 65. That terminology is not used to avoid confusion with reducible maps.

Lemma 2.1. *If $f : M \rightarrow M$ is an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of a compact orientable 2-manifold and $x \in P_n(f)$, then following are equivalent:*

- (a) *There exists a periodic point y so that $(x, f) \vdash (y, f)$.*
- (b) *$LC(x, f^n)$ is collapsible.*
- (c) *There exist integers k and m with $1 \leq k < n$ and $n = mk$, an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$, and a lift \tilde{x} so that \tilde{x} is a periodic point with period m under $\sigma \tilde{f}^k$.*

Proof. First assume (a). If $per(x) = n$ and $per(y) = k$, we have from the definition of collapsible that $n = mk$ for some $1 < m \leq n$ and that for some $\sigma \in \pi_1$ $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$ and $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$. But since $per(y) = k$, there is also an $\alpha \in \pi_1$ with $\alpha \tilde{f}^k(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$, and so $(\alpha \tilde{f}^k)^m(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$. But two lifts of f^n with the same fixed point must be the same and so $\sigma \tilde{f}^n = (\alpha \tilde{f}^k)^m$. This implies (b).

Now assume (b). By assumption, if $\sigma \in \pi_1$ is such that $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$, then there are $\alpha, \beta \in \pi_1$ and k with $1 \leq k < n$ so that $\sigma \tilde{f}^n = \alpha^{-1}(\beta \tilde{f}^k)^m \alpha = (\alpha^{-1} \beta \tilde{f}^k \alpha)^m$. Thus \tilde{x} is m -periodic under $\alpha^{-1} \beta \tilde{f}^k \alpha$ which is a lift of f^k and so (c) follows.

Finally assume (c). If M has no boundary, the universal cover of M is either the plane or the sphere. The Brouwer Lemma states that an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of the plane that has a periodic point also has a fixed point. This implies that $\sigma \tilde{f}^k$ has a fixed point \tilde{y} . Thus $(\sigma \tilde{f}^k)^m(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$ and $(\sigma \tilde{f}^k)^m(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$, and so $x \vdash y$ which is (a). If M has boundary then the universal cover of $int(M)$ is the plane and thus if $x \in Int(M)$, the proof is the same. If x is on the boundary of M , collar M and extend f so that it has no periodic points in the collar, and proceed as in the case where $x \in Int(M)$. \square

It is important to note that the inclusion of condition (a) in Lemma 2.1 is very dependent on the fact that we are in dimension 2. The proof that (c) implies (a) uses the Brouwer Lemma which is not true in higher dimensions.

We now discuss a stronger notion of equivalence of periodic points that was first introduced in [AF]. It is convenient to include a parallel discussion of periodic Nielsen equivalence. These two theories share a general pattern in their development with any Nielsen-type theory for periodic points. We first introduce two notions associated with isotopies. A self-isotopy $f_t : f \simeq f$ is called *contractible* if the corresponding closed loop in $Homeo(M)$ is null-homotopic. An isotopy $f_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$ is said to be a *deformation* of a second isotopy $h_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$ if the corresponding arcs in $Homeo(M)$ are homotopic with fixed endpoints.

Assume that $x_0 \in P_n(f_0)$, $x_1 \in P_n(f_1)$ and $f_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$. The periodic points x_0 and x_1 are *connected by the isotopy* f_t if there exists an arc $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) = x_0$, $\gamma(1) = x_1$, and for all t , $\gamma(t) \in P_n(f_t)$. If (x_0, f_0) and (x_1, f_1) are connected by some isotopy we say that they are *connected by isotopy*. Given a single map f and $x, y \in P_n(f)$, then x is *strong Nielsen equivalent* to y (denoted $(x, f) \xrightarrow{SN} (y, f)$ or $x \xrightarrow{SN} y$) if x and y are connected by a *contractible* isotopy $f_t : f \simeq f$. The strong Nielsen class of a periodic point x is $SNC(x, f)$. Two strong Nielsen classes are connected by an isotopy if elements from each class are.

In the case of primary interest here (M is a compact orientable surface with negative Euler characteristic) all self-isotopies are contractible (cf. [FLP], page 22). However, the definition of strong Nielsen equivalence is applicable in other situations so the condition is explicitly mentioned here. The self-isotopy is required to be contractible so that $x \xsim{SN} y$ implies $x \xsim{PN} y$. This is a direct consequence of the fact that a contractible self-isotopy always lifts to self-isotopy in the universal cover. The fact that $x \xsim{SN} y$ implies $x \xsim{PN} y$ means that a periodic Nielsen class is composed of a disjoint collection of strong Nielsen classes. A strong Nielsen class is said to be *collapsible* if its periodic Nielsen class is collapsible.

For fixed points there is no difference between the notions of strong and periodic Nielsen equivalence ([J3], Theorem 2.13). The relationship of strong and periodic Nielsen equivalence for periodic orbits is clarified by considering the suspension flow of the given map. Two periodic orbits are said to be strong Nielsen equivalent if periodic points from each orbit are. It was shown in [J6] that two periodic orbits are periodic Nielsen equivalent if and only if their corresponding closed orbits are *homotopic* in the suspension flow. One can show that for diffeomorphisms, two orbits are strong Nielsen equivalent if and only if their corresponding closed orbits are *isotopic* in the suspension flow. This indicates the close connection of strong Nielsen equivalence with knot theory in dimension 3 (cf. [BW]). It also indicates that the distinction between strong and periodic Nielsen equivalence vanishes in dimensions bigger than two. In this case the suspension manifolds will be dimension 4 or greater and in these dimensions simple closed curves are homotopic if and only if they are isotopic.

One of the main purposes of a Nielsen-type theory for periodic orbits is to find conditions that guarantee the persistence (in the appropriate sense) of classes under isotopy (or homotopy). For this the notion of index is crucial. Given a map f , any collection of fixed points that is both open in $\text{Fix}(f)$ and closed in M may be assigned an integer index (cf. [J3], page 11).

Lemma 2.2 (Essential Classes). *An uncollapsible period n -periodic or -strong Nielsen class is open in $\text{Fix}(f^n)$ and closed in M .*

Proof. We first prove the statement for periodic Nielsen classes. It is a standard fact that Nielsen fixed point classes are closed in M and open in the set of fixed points ([J3], page 7). By applying this fact to the map f^n the statement follows after we have shown that when $\text{PNC}(x, f)$ is uncollapsible, it is equal to the Nielsen class of x under f^n . For this we need only check that when $(x, f^n) \xsim{NE} (y, f^n)$, then y has least period n . This is an immediate consequence of the equivalence of Lemma 2.1 (a) and (b).

The statement for strong Nielsen classes follows from Lemma 4 in [Hil] after we show that what is called uncollapsible here implies what is called uncollapsible there. Specifically, we must show that if $p \in P_n(f)$ is uncollapsible in the sense used here, then the following condition holds: Whenever there are sequences $g_j \rightarrow g$ in $\text{Homeo}(M)$ and $q_j \rightarrow q$ in M with $q_j \in P_n(g_j)$ and (q_j, g_j) connected by isotopy to (p, f) for all j , then q has least period n .

Fix lifts and $\sigma \in \pi_1$ so that $\sigma \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{p}) = \tilde{p}$. Since each (q_j, g_j) is connected by isotopy to (p, f) , for all j there exist lifts and equivariant isotopies $\tilde{g}_j \simeq \tilde{f}$ with $\sigma \tilde{g}_j^n(\tilde{q}_j) = \tilde{q}_j$ and $\tilde{q}_j \rightarrow \tilde{q}$, which implies $\sigma \tilde{g}^n(\tilde{q}) = \tilde{q}$ for some lift \tilde{g} of g . Now if q had least period $k < n$, then there would be an element $\alpha \in \pi_1$ with $\alpha \tilde{g}^k(\tilde{q}) = \tilde{q}$

and so $(\alpha\tilde{g}^k)^m = \sigma\tilde{g}^n$ where $n = mk$. This implies that $(\alpha\tilde{f}^k)^m = \sigma\tilde{f}^n$, and so p is collapsible, a contradiction. \square

A periodic or strong Nielsen class for which the index is defined and is nonzero is called *essential*.

The next step in a Nielsen-type theory for periodic orbits is the correspondence of periodic points in isotopic maps. The notion of connection by isotopy is the type of correspondence appropriate to strong Nielsen equivalence. It was defined above the last lemma. If $f_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$ and $x_i \in P_n(f_i)$, then $PNC(x_0, f_0)$ corresponds to $PNC(x_1, f_1)$ under this isotopy if there exists $\sigma \in \pi_1$ and lifts with $\sigma\tilde{f}_i^n(\tilde{x}_i) = \tilde{x}_i$ where $\tilde{f}_t : \tilde{f}_0 \simeq \tilde{f}_1$ with \tilde{f}_t an equivariant isotopy. Equivalently, the periodic points correspond under the isotopy if there is an arc $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) = x_0$, $\gamma(1) = x_1$, and the curve $f_t(\gamma(t))$ is homotopic to $\gamma(t)$ with fixed endpoints.

Lemma 2.3 (Correspondence and Persistence of Classes under Isotopy).

Assume that $f_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$ and $x_i \in P_n(f_i)$, for $i = 1, 2$.

(a) *Periodic Nielsen Equivalence*

- (i) If $PNC(x_0, f_0)$ is uncollapsible and corresponds to $PNC(x_1, f_1)$ under the isotopy, then $PNC(x_1, f_1)$ is uncollapsible and $I(PNC(x_0, f_0), f_0^n) = I(PNC(x_1, f_1), f_1^n)$.
- (ii) If x_0 is contained in a uncollapsible, essential periodic Nielsen class, then there exists a $z \in P_n(f_1)$ that corresponds to x_0 under the isotopy.

(b) *Strong Nielsen Equivalence*

- (i) If $SNC(x_0, f_0)$ is uncollapsible and is connected to $SNC(x_1, f_1)$ by the isotopy, then $SNC(x_1, f_1)$ is uncollapsible and $I(SNC(x_0, f_0), f_0^n) = I(SNC(x_1, f_1), f_1^n)$.
- (ii) If x_0 is contained in a uncollapsible, essential strong Nielsen class, then there exists a $z \in P_n(f_1)$ and an isotopy $f'_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$ that is a deformation of f_t so that z is connected to x_0 by the isotopy f'_t .

Proof. If $PNC(x_0, f_0)$ corresponds to $PNC(x_1, f_1)$, then by definition there exists a $\sigma \in \pi_1$ and lifts so that $\sigma\tilde{f}_i^n(\tilde{x}_i) = \tilde{x}_i$ and \tilde{f}_0 and \tilde{f}_1 are equivariantly isotopic. Now if $PNC(x_1, f_1)$ is collapsible, then there exists $\alpha, \beta \in \pi_1$ with $\sigma\tilde{f}_1^n = \alpha(\beta\tilde{f}_1^k)^m\alpha^{-1}$ and so $\sigma\tilde{f}_0^n = \alpha(\beta\tilde{f}_0^k)^m\alpha^{-1}$, so x_0 is collapsible.

The proof of Lemma 2.2 shows that when x_0 is uncollapsible its periodic Nielsen class is equal to its Nielsen fixed point class under f^n . The equality of the indices and part (a)(ii) then follow from [J3], Theorem I.4.5.

The assertions in (b) follow from [H1] using the result concerning uncollapsibility shown in the proof of Lemma 2.2. \square

It is convenient to have terminology to describe periodic points that behave as in the (ii) parts in the above theorem. A periodic point $x \in P_n(f_0)$ is called *persistent* if for each given homeomorphism f_1 with $f_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$, there is an $x_1 \in P_n(f_1)$ which corresponds to x_0 under the isotopy. The periodic point is called *unremovable* if x_0 is connected to x_1 by an isotopy $f'_t : f_0 \simeq f_1$, with the isotopy f'_t a deformation of f_t .

The next theorem asserts the existence of a minimal representative with respect to periodic and strong Nielsen equivalence in the category of orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of compact orientable surfaces. The corresponding theorem for

Nielsen fixed point classes is outlined in [J2] and [I] and given in full detail in [JG]. In stating the theorem it will be convenient to work with equivalence classes of both periodic points and periodic orbits. The periodic (strong) Nielsen class of a periodic orbit is simply the union of the classes for all the periodic points in the orbit.

Theorem 1.7 says that any homeomorphism of the type considered here is isotopic to a condensed homeomorphism. The condensed homeomorphism has no relations among its periodic *orbits* and each periodic point has nonzero index. The only relations among periodic *points* of the condensed homeomorphism were specified above that theorem. They consist of uncollapsible periodic points that can be periodic Nielsen equivalent to other periodic points on the same orbit but have no other relations. Therefore using Lemmas 2.1 and 2.3 we have:

Theorem 2.4 (Dynamically Minimal Representative). *Each orientation preserving homeomorphism of a compact, orientable 2-manifold is isotopic to a condensed homeomorphism. Each nonempty periodic (strong) Nielsen class of periodic points for a condensed homeomorphism is uncollapsible and essential and is therefore persistent (unremovable). Further, each nonempty periodic (strong) Nielsen class of periodic orbits contains exactly one element.*

Informally, this theorem says that condensed homeomorphisms are the least complicated dynamically in their isotopy class. More formally, given an isotopy class Ω , for each n , let $PON(\Omega, n)$ denote the number of uncollapsible, essential period- n periodic Nielsen classes of periodic orbits for any map in Ω . Theorem 2.3 guarantees that this number is well-defined and further, that it is a lower bound for the number of period- n periodic orbits of any element in the isotopy class. Theorem 2.4 asserts the existence of a map in the isotopy class that achieves this lower bound for all n . A similar remark holds for strong Nielsen classes.

It is important to note there is no theorem of this type even for fixed point theories for certain homotopy classes of maps on surfaces that are not homeomorphisms ([J4] and [J5]).

Corollary 2.5. *Let f be an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of a compact, orientable 2-manifold. A periodic point $x \in P_n(f)$ is persistent (unremovable) if and only if its periodic (strong) Nielsen class is uncollapsible and essential.*

Proof. Necessity follows from Lemma 2.3. Assume then that x is persistent. Let Φ be a condensed homeomorphism that is isotopic to f . By definition of persistent, there is a $z \in P_n(\Phi)$ that corresponds to x under the isotopy. By Lemma 2.3(a), $PNC(x, f)$ is uncollapsible and essential because $PNC(z, \phi)$ is. The proof for strong Nielsen equivalence is virtually identical. \square

Remark 2.6. The main goal in the construction of condensed homeomorphisms was to produce a map in the isotopy class having the least number of periodic points. It will perhaps clarify the work of the last section to describe how and why a TN-reducible homeomorphism fails to achieve this goal.

As defined in Section 1, a TN-reducible map can have periodic points in the interior of reducing annuli. When these periodic points are contained in unflipped reducing annuli they can always be removed by a strong push towards the boundary of the annulus. With the exception of a pair of periodic points, all the periodic points in the interior of a flipped reducing annulus can be removed using Lemma

1.2(b). Each uncollapsible strong Nielsen class that remains is essential. This means that the only periodic points that are removable are those that are collapsible. The collapsible periodic points in a TN-reducible map are regular periodic points in finite-order components that contain branch periodic points, peripheral pA periodic points in adjoining untwisted reducing annuli, and peripheral pA periodic points on the boundary of a flipped, untwisted reducing annulus. These collapsible periodic orbit are removed using Cases 3 and 4 and the gluing process from Section 1.

This leaves the following types of unremovable periodic points: (1) Interior pA periodic points. (2) Boundary pA periodic points. (3) Peripheral pA periodic points that are not adjacent via an untwisted reducing annulus to finite-order components that have branch periodic points and are also not adjacent to an untwisted, flipped reducing annulus. (4) Finite order periodic points that are in a component that has no branch periodic points. (5) Branch periodic point in finite-order components. (6) Periodic points in the interior of flipped reducing annuli.

Although none of these periodic points can be removed, the map can be made dynamically simpler by coalescing periodic points in the same strong Nielsen class. Points of type (1), (5), and (6) are alone in their strong Nielsen classes so no coalescing is needed for these points. However, there are several reductions that may be possible with points of type (2). In the standard model of a pA map there are pairs of periodic orbits on the boundary that are strong Nielsen equivalent. These were coalesced in the corresponding boundary-adjusted pA. Periodic points of type (2) can also be strong Nielsen equivalent to other points from their orbit that lie on the same boundary component. However, these periodic points are uncollapsible and therefore coalescing to other points on the same orbit is not possible. Similar remarks hold for periodic points of types (3) and (4).

Periodic orbits of types (2), (3) and (4) can also be strong Nielsen equivalent to periodic points not on their orbit as described in Proposition 1.5 (a) and (c). These strong Nielsen equivalent periodic orbits are coalesced in the gluing process in the construction of condensed homeomorphisms and the use of Proposition 1.6, respectively.

Remark 2.7. The conditions that guarantee unremovability of an $x \in P_n(f)$ given in [AF] are that $SNC(x, f)$ is essential and that the points

$\{x, f(x), \dots, f^{n-1}(x)\}$ are in different Nielsen classes as fixed points of f^n . It is easy to check that this last condition implies that $SNC(x, f)$ is not collapsible. These Asimov-Franks' conditions yield the unremovability of periodic points of type (1), (5), and (6) in the previous remark. These types of periodic points constitute “most” of the unremovable periodic points in “most” of the isotopy classes. The other types of unremovable periodic points do not, in general, satisfy these conditions.

The results of Hall in [Hll] strengthen the Asimov-Franks' result by removing the need for differentiability of the homeomorphisms as well as providing a lower level condition that ensures unremovability. Hall's conditions also guarantees the unremovability of certain finite collections of periodic points. Unremovability rel compact invariant sets is considered in [BdH].

Remark 2.8. There is an inherent awkwardness in dealing with dynamically minimal models and equivalence classes of periodic points and periodic orbits. This is reflected in the statements of Theorems 1.7 and 2.4. As an example, let ϕ be a boundary-adjusted pA map on a surface M that has two boundary components

that are mapped one to the other. Suppose further that ϕ^2 restricted to each of these circle has rotation number $1/2$. This map certainly has the least number of periodic points among maps in its isotopy class. However, the boundary periodic points are not alone in their periodic (or strong) Nielsen class as they are periodic (strong) Nielsen equivalent to the other point on their orbit that is on the same boundary circle. On the other hand, if one restricts attention to equivalence of periodic orbits, one has thrown out the more detailed information about the structure of the orbit provided by equivalence of periodic points.

Remark 2.9. As remarked above, periodic Nielsen classes are comprised of the disjoint union of strong Nielsen classes. The results of this section show that a persistent periodic Nielsen class for a surface homeomorphism contains exactly one unremovable strong Nielsen class.

Remark 2.10. The conditions given in Corollary 2.5 that are necessary and sufficient for unremovability have a heuristic interpretation in terms of bifurcation theory. The intuitive idea is that a periodic point is removable exactly when there is a one-parameter family of homeomorphisms with the property that the given periodic point disappears in a bifurcation at some point. This is essentially the point of view taken in [AF]. From this point of view the requirement that the strong Nielsen class of the periodic point be essential is necessary to guarantee that the class of the periodic point cannot disappear via a collection of saddlenode bifurcations. The uncollapsibility condition prevents disappearance via period-dividing bifurcations.

Remark 2.11. This section has presented a parallel development of two Nielsen-type theories for periodic points. In such theories there are other components that have not been discussed here. One such component is the issue of coordinates for the equivalence classes. For periodic Nielsen classes these coordinates are provided by lifting classes or by twisted conjugacy classes in π_1 (cf. [J3] Section II.1). For maps isotopic to the identity, coordinates for strong Nielsen classes are provided by the braid type which is the conjugacy class in the mapping class group of the isotopy class of the map on the complement of the orbit (cf. [H1], Lemma 8 and [Bd1]).

Another issue is how to compute the different classes and their coordinates using algebraic or combinatoric information about the maps. For surface homeomorphisms this is perhaps best accomplished geometrically using train tracks (cf. [PH], [BH], [FM], [Ls], [Ky], and [Kl]). Algebraic techniques are provided in [J3], [F], [FH], [HPY], and [HY].

There are other Nielsen type theories for periodic points in addition to those discussed here. The simplest way to describe these theories is in terms of the suspension flow of the given homeomorphism. For example, call two periodic orbits *Abelian Nielsen equivalent* if the corresponding orbits are homologous in the suspension flow. There is, of course, an equivalent formulation in terms of the appropriate covering space and in terms of arcs in the surface. For more information on such theories see, for example, [F] or [HJ].

3. PERSISTENCE OF PA ORBITS

The results of the previous section show that a condensed homeomorphism is dynamically smallest in its isotopy class and that its periodic orbits are present in any isotopic map. If a condensed homeomorphism has a pA component, the

periodic orbits are a small subset of the interesting dynamics. This section concerns persistence of these other orbits.

Handel ([H]) and Fathi ([Ft]) both give persistence results for all the dynamics of pA maps. Although global shadowing is not used explicitly, the point of view adopted here is closest to that of Handel (see Remark 3.3 below). The persistence of all the pA orbits from a condensed homeomorphism is obtained by taking the closure of the persistent periodic orbits. This point of view is somewhat more natural here given the emphasis of the previous sections. It also avoids certain technical difficulties associated with the presence of a boundary on M or the presence of finite-order components in a reducible map.

The first step is to use a given condensed homeomorphism $\Phi : M \rightarrow M$ to define three pseudo-metrics on \tilde{M} , the universal cover of M (in this paper *metric* always refers to a topological metric, *i.e.*, a map $M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$). The pseudo-metrics are constructed using the invariant foliations of the pA components of Φ . The measure attached to an invariant foliation of a pA map assigns lengths to arcs (*cf.* [FLP], exposé 5 §II). Given the lift of a pA component \tilde{N}_i , the lift of the invariant unstable measured foliation of Φ restricted to N_i gives a length $\ell_u^{(i)}(\gamma)$ to arcs γ contained in \tilde{N}_i . For an arc $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{M}$ that intersects the lifts of pA components, $\tilde{N}_1, \dots, \tilde{N}_k$, define $\ell_u(\gamma) = \sum_{i=1}^k \ell_u^{(i)}(\gamma \cap \tilde{N}_i)$. Given $\tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \in \tilde{M}$, let

$$\tilde{d}_u(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = \inf\{\ell_u(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ is an arc connecting } \tilde{x} \text{ and } \tilde{y}\}.$$

A pseudo-metric \tilde{d}_s is defined similarly using the lifts of stable foliations. Let $\tilde{d}_\Phi = \tilde{d}_u + \tilde{d}_s$. Note that these three pseudo-metrics are equivariant, *i.e.* for $\sigma \in \pi_1$, $d_s(\sigma\tilde{x}_0, \sigma\tilde{x}_1) = d_s(\tilde{x}_0, \tilde{x}_1)$, etc.

The pseudo-metric \tilde{d}_Φ projects to a pseudo-metric d_Φ on M that is a metric when restricted to the interior of a pA component ([FLP] pages 178–180). In the projected metric the distance between points in the same (connected) finite-order component is zero. Even in the case where there is only one component and Φ is pA, d_Φ will not be a metric if M has boundary. This is because it assigns zero distance between pairs of points on the same boundary component (but these are the only pairs of points that have zero separation). To distinguish between these pseudo-metrics and an underlying metric that makes M a 2-manifold (*e.g.* a hyperbolic metric), the latter will be called a *standard metric*. If ρ is a metric or pseudo-metric on M , the notation (M, ρ) indicates the set M with the topology given by ρ .

Now let λ_* be the smallest expansion constant among the pA components of Φ . The crucial property of the pseudo-metrics is:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{d}_u(\tilde{\Phi}(\tilde{x}), \tilde{\Phi}(\tilde{y})) &\geq \lambda_* \tilde{d}_u(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \\ \tilde{d}_s(\tilde{\Phi}^{-1}(\tilde{x}), \tilde{\Phi}^{-1}(\tilde{y})) &\geq \lambda_* \tilde{d}_s(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}). \end{aligned} \tag{*}$$

In particular, if \tilde{x} and \tilde{y} are a positive distance apart, then their separation as measured by \tilde{d}_Φ grows exponentially under forward or backward iteration (or both).

We now return to the proofs promised in Section 1.

Proof of Lemma 1.1(b). Recall that two boundary components b_1 and b_2 are related by a map ϕ if and only if there is an integer n , an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$, and lifts to the universal cover $\tilde{\phi}$ and \tilde{b}_i so that $\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n$ fixes the \tilde{b}_i . Now if ϕ is pA, property (*) and the

fact that \tilde{d}_Φ is a metric on the interior of \tilde{M} imply that $\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n$ cannot fix two distinct boundary components of \tilde{M} . This shows that distinct boundary components of M cannot be related by ϕ and also yields Lemma 1.1(biv). The other parts of Lemma 1.1(b) follow by considering points as well as boundary components. \square

Proof of Lemma 1.4(a). By hypothesis, if $n = \text{per}(x, \phi_1)$, then there exists an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ and lifts with $\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{x}$, $\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n(\tilde{y}) = \tilde{y}$, and a $\tilde{\gamma}$ that connect \tilde{x} and \tilde{y} . Without loss of generality we may assume that Γ_0 is a simple closed geodesic with respect to a hyperbolic metric. We now identify \tilde{M} , the universal cover of M , with a subset of the hyperbolic disk. Since γ essentially intersects Γ_0 , there exists a lift $\tilde{\Gamma}_0$ so that $\tilde{\gamma} \cap \tilde{\Gamma}_0$ is nonempty and \tilde{x} and \tilde{y} are in different components of $\tilde{M} - \tilde{\Gamma}_0$.

Since Γ_0 is a reducing curve, there is an $m > 0$ with $\phi^m(\Gamma_0) = \Gamma_0$. This implies that $(\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n)^m(\tilde{\Gamma}_0)$ either equals $\tilde{\Gamma}_0$ or else is another (and therefore disjoint) lift of Γ_0 . But by compactness there are a finite number of lifts of Γ_0 that intersect $\tilde{\gamma}$ and so $(\sigma\tilde{\phi}^n)^m(\tilde{\Gamma}_0) = \tilde{\Gamma}_0$, which implies that Γ_0 is related to both x and y .

The proof of the second statement is similar. \square

The next lemma contains the key idea of this section and is taken almost directly from [H], Lemma 2.2. The difference here is in the use of the pseudo-metric d_Φ derived from a reducible map instead of the metric derived from a pA map on a closed surface. Extending a definition from Section 2, if $f_0 \simeq f_1$, the lifts \tilde{x}_i of periodic points (x_i, f_i) are said to correspond under the isotopy if there exists an equivariant isotopy $\tilde{f}_0 \simeq \tilde{f}_1$ and an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ with $\sigma\tilde{f}_i^n(\tilde{x}_i) = \tilde{x}_i$, where $n = \text{per}(x_i, f_i)$.

Lemma 3.1. *Let f be an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of a compact, orientable 2-manifold M and $\Phi \simeq f$ be a condensed homeomorphism. There exists a constant $C = C(f)$ such that whenever (x, Φ) and (y, f) are periodic points with lifts \tilde{x} and \tilde{y} that correspond under the isotopy, then $\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) < C$.*

Proof. Fix equivariantly isotopic lifts $\tilde{\Phi}$ and \tilde{f} and let

$$R = \sup_{\tilde{z} \in \tilde{M}} \{\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}(\tilde{z}), \tilde{f}(\tilde{z})), \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^{-1}(\tilde{z}), \tilde{f}^{-1}(\tilde{z}))\}$$

and $C = 2(R + 1)/(\lambda_* - 1)$. Using the triangle equality and property $(*)$ we have $\tilde{d}_u(\tilde{\Phi}(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}(\tilde{y})) \geq \lambda_* \tilde{d}_u(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) - R$. Thus if $\tilde{d}_u(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \geq C/2$, then $\tilde{d}_u(\tilde{\Phi}(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}(\tilde{y})) \geq 1 + \tilde{d}_u(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$, and so $\tilde{d}_u(\tilde{\Phi}^n(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y})) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Similarly, if $\tilde{d}_s(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \geq C/2$, then $\tilde{d}_s(\tilde{\Phi}^n(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y})) \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow -\infty$. Thus if $\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \geq C$, then $\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^n(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y}))$ goes to infinity under forward or backward iteration (or both).

On the other hand, by hypothesis there exists an element $\sigma \in \pi_1$ with $\tilde{\Phi}^N(\tilde{x}) = \sigma^{-1}\tilde{x}$ and $\tilde{f}^N(\tilde{y}) = \sigma^{-1}\tilde{y}$, where $N = \text{per}(x, \Phi) = \text{per}(y, f)$. Since the pseudo-metric \tilde{d}_Φ is equivariant this implies that $\{\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^n(\tilde{x}), \tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y})) : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is finite, a contradiction. \square

Note that a lemma of this type is certainly not true for finite order maps using the lift of a standard metric. The identity map gives a trivial example; all fixed points are Nielsen equivalent, but there are lifts that are fixed points arbitrarily far apart in the cover. This is one reason the pseudo-metric d_Φ needs to vanish on finite-order components.

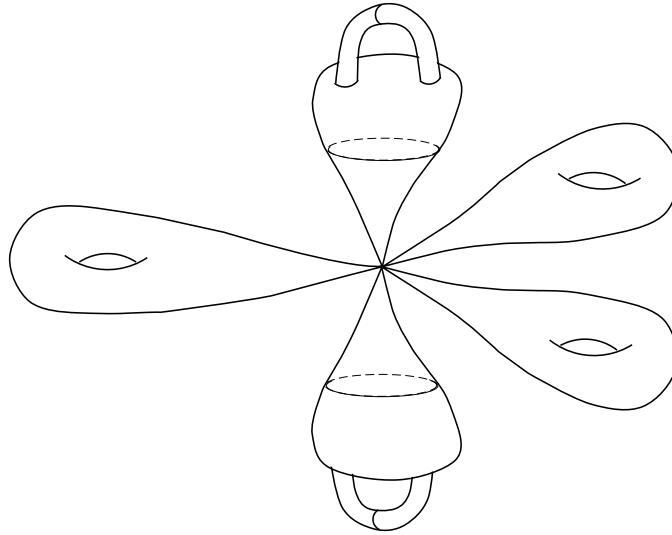


FIGURE 7. The pinched manifold M_p used in Theorem 3.2 derived from the condensed homeomorphism of Figure 6(c).

The next theorem describes the persistence of the dynamics of a condensed homeomorphism under isotopy. To get a statement that avoids pseudo-metrics it is necessary to pass to a quotient of M . Given a condensed homeomorphism $\Phi : M \rightarrow M$, define a equivalence relation \bowtie on M as follows. If z_0 and z_1 are on the same boundary component of a pA component, then $z_0 \bowtie z_1$. Boundary component here means not only boundary components of the manifold itself, but also curves in the interior of the manifold which are the boundary to a pA component. Points that are not on the boundary of a pA component are equivalent only to themselves. Extend the relation \bowtie so that it is an equivalence relation. Note that the construction of a condensed homeomorphism can glue together points from the boundaries of different pA components. These points will be \bowtie -equivalent.

Let $M_p = M / \bowtie$. Fix a standard metric on M and give M_p the metric induced by the projection $M \rightarrow M_p$ (See Figure 7) Since Φ respects the relation \bowtie , it descends to a homeomorphism $\Phi_p : M_p \rightarrow M_p$. In addition, since the projection p is injective on the interior of components of Φ , we can continue to speak of the components of the map Φ_p . If Φ is itself pA, M_p is just the closed manifold formed by collapsing each the boundary components of M to a point. In this case the metric on M_p is equivalent to that induced by the projection of d_Φ ([FLP], pages 178–180). In the general case, on pA components in M_p the given metric is equivalent to the projection of d_Φ .

Theorem 3.2. *Let f be an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of a compact, orientable 2-manifold M and $\Phi \simeq f$ be a condensed homeomorphism. There exists a compact f -invariant set $Y \subset M$ and a continuous map $\alpha : Y \rightarrow M_p$ so that $\alpha \circ f|_Y = \Phi_p \circ \alpha$. Further, α is homotopic to the inclusion and its image contains all pA components and all periodic points of Φ_p .*

Proof. Let X_a and X_f be the set of periodic points of Φ that are contained in the interior of a pA component or the interior of a finite-order component, respectively.

Pick a point x from each periodic orbit of Φ contained in $X_a \cup X_f$. Let $\beta(x)$ be a periodic point (y, f) that is connected by isotopy to (x, Φ) . By Theorem 2.4 and Lemma 2.3(bii) such a point y exists. Now extend β by requiring that for $z \in X_a \cup X_f$, $\beta(z)$ is a periodic point (y, f) that is connected by isotopy to (z, Φ) , and further that $\beta \circ \Phi|_{X_a \cup X_f} = f \circ \beta$. By Theorem 1.7, β is injective. Let $Y_a = \beta(X_a)$, $Y_f = \beta(X_f)$, and $\alpha_0 = \beta^{-1}$.

Since d_Φ is a metric on the interior of pA components we may pick a standard metric ρ on M with $d_\Phi \leq \rho$. Let $\tilde{\rho}$ denote its lift to the universal cover. We first show that $\alpha_0 : (Y_a \cup Y_f, \rho) \rightarrow (M, d_\Phi)$ is uniformly continuous. The proof depends on the following fact: If for $i = 1, 2$, the periodic points (x_i, Φ) and (y_i, f) have lifts \tilde{x}_i and \tilde{y}_i that correspond under the isotopy, then for all m ,

$$|\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_1), \tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_2)) - \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_1), \tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_2))| \leq 2C. \quad (**)$$

To prove this fact note that

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_1), \tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_2)) &\leq \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_1), \tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_1)) + \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_1), \tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_2)) \\ &\quad + \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^m(\tilde{x}_2), \tilde{f}^m(\tilde{y}_2)). \end{aligned}$$

By Lemma 3.1, the first and the last terms on the right hand side are bounded by C . There is a similar inequality obtained by switching all $\tilde{\Phi}$'s and \tilde{f} 's and \tilde{x} 's and \tilde{y} 's. These two inequalities together yield the fact.

Now assume to the contrary that α_0 is not uniformly continuous. In this case there exists some $\epsilon > 0$ such that for all positive n there are $y_1^{(n)}$ and $y_2^{(n)}$ with $\rho(y_1^{(n)}, y_2^{(n)}) < 1/n$ and $d_\Phi(\alpha_0(y_1^{(n)}), \alpha_0(y_2^{(n)})) \geq \epsilon$.

Pick lifts $\tilde{y}_i^{(n)}$ of $y_i^{(n)}$ and $\tilde{x}_i^{(n)}$ of $\alpha_0(y_i^{(n)})$ so that the inequalities of the previous paragraph hold with the lifts in place of the points in the base. Fix an M with $\epsilon \lambda_*^M / 2 > 4C$. Since $\tilde{f} : (\tilde{M}, \tilde{\rho}) \rightarrow (\tilde{M}, \tilde{\rho})$ is uniformly continuous and $\tilde{d}_\Phi \leq \tilde{\rho}$ there is an n so that

$$\max\{\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{f}^M(\tilde{y}_1^{(n)}), \tilde{f}^M(\tilde{y}_2^{(n)})), \tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{f}^{-M}(\tilde{y}_1^{(n)}), \tilde{f}^{-M}(\tilde{y}_2^{(n)}))\} < C.$$

By property (*), either $\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^M(\tilde{x}_1), \tilde{\Phi}^M(\tilde{x}_2)) \geq \epsilon \lambda_*^M$ or $\tilde{d}_\Phi(\tilde{\Phi}^{-M}(\tilde{x}_1), \tilde{\Phi}^{-M}(\tilde{x}_2)) \geq \epsilon \lambda_*^M$, contradicting (**) above. Thus $\alpha_0 : (Y_a \cup Y_f, \rho) \rightarrow (M, d_\Phi)$ is uniformly continuous.

If $Y = Cl(Y_a) \cup Y_f$, where the closure is taken with respect to topology given by ρ , we can extend α_0 to a continuous map, $\alpha_1 : (Y, \rho) \rightarrow (M, d_\Phi)$. The fact that M_p is obtained by identifying points on the boundaries of pA components whose d_Φ separation is zero coupled with the fact that $X_f = \alpha(Y_f)$ is finite yields that $\alpha := p \circ \alpha_1 : (Y, \rho) \rightarrow M_p$ is continuous.

Since periodic points of Φ are dense in its pA components, the assertion about the range of α follows. The fact that $\alpha \circ f|_Y = \Phi_p \circ \alpha$ is a straight forward consequence of the definition of α . If we pick a lift $\tilde{Y} \subset \tilde{M}$, by virtue of Lemma 3.1 and the fact that Y_f is finite, α has a lift $\tilde{\alpha} : \tilde{Y} \rightarrow \tilde{M}$ that is a bounded distance from the inclusion. This implies that α is homotopic to the inclusion. \square

Remark 3.3. In [H] Handel proves Theorem 3.2 for pA maps on closed surfaces using global shadowing. Given two isotopic maps f and ϕ and equivariantly isotopic lifts \tilde{f} and $\tilde{\phi}$, the pairs (x, ϕ) and (y, f) *globally shadow* with respect to a metric d if

there is a constant K so that $\tilde{d}(\tilde{f}^n(\tilde{y}), \tilde{\phi}^n(\tilde{x})) < K$ for all n , where as usual the tilde indicates lifts to the universal cover.

If ϕ is pA and Y_{gs} denotes the set of all points (y, f) that globally shadow some point (x, ϕ) , Handel shows that f restricted to Y_{gs} is semiconjugate to ϕ . If the set constructed in the proof of Theorem 3.2 is denoted Y_{po} , certainly Y_{gs} can be larger than Y_{po} . A simple example is given by a DA map on the two torus (cf. [W], or the appendix of [FR]). In this case Y_{gs} is the entire torus and Y_{po} is just the basic set. Clearly there are circumstances in which one or the other of these sets would be most useful.

The metric used for global shadowing in a pA isotopy class on a closed manifold is d_ϕ as defined above. As noted previously, when M has boundary d_ϕ is only a pseudo-metric as it assigns zero distance to pairs of points on the same boundary component. This means that with respect to d_ϕ , a point (y, f) globally shadows one point (x, ϕ) on the boundary if and only if it globally shadows every point on the same boundary circle if and only if the orbit of its lift stays a bounded distance away from the orbit of the lift of the boundary circle.

Using the pseudo-metric derived from a condensed homeomorphism Φ one can prove a version of Theorem 3.2 via global shadowing. In fact, most of the statements in [H] go through with minor changes. One again obtains a set Y_{gs} that has the pA components and periodic points of Φ as a factor. There is, of course, still a difference between Y_{gs} and Y_{po} .

As another example, let $\phi : M \rightarrow M$ be pA and assume that M has boundary. Glue an annulus to a boundary component, extend ϕ in any manner, and call the new map f . All the points in the new annulus under f will globally shadow the boundary and therefore be in Y_{gs} , but only the points on the interior boundary of the annulus will be in Y_{po} .

Remark 3.4. The intent in formulating Theorem 3.2 was to find a model map that is a factor of every map in its isotopy class. Unfortunately, to get such a result one is required to either use a degenerate topology coming from a pseudo-metric (as in $(Y, \rho) \rightarrow (M, d_\Phi)$ is continuous) or else use the pinched manifold M_p . The fact that some device is necessary even in pA classes is illustrated by Figures 2(a) and 2(b). These pictures show possible boundary behavior for two isotopic pA maps that are conjugate on the interior of M . Any simple factor of these two maps should clearly be the same on the interior of M , but there is no boundary behavior that is a factor of the boundary dynamics of both maps. The alternative adopted here was to collapse the boundary of the image manifold to a point. This yields a trivial point factor for the boundary dynamics.

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